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VENTILATION REQUIREMENTS IN ROOMS OCCUPIED BY SMOKERS: A REVIEW

by

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SUMMARY

The fresh air needed to dilute cigarette smoke to an acceptable level is the dominant criterion for ventilation design of buildings. The literature is reviewed and brought to a common basis of dilution air per cigarette. Non-smokers are more sensitive to smell and nose irritation than smokers but eye irritation affects both. Humidity has an important influence on irritation, lower humidities increasing the irritation.

Health criteria are compared with the compounds released in the cigarette smoke. Carbon monoxide is the most critical if the EPA recommended limit of 9ppm is accepted. Nine cubic metres of fresh air are needed per cigarette. Preferred values of $26\text{m}^3/\text{h}$ per person agree well with current ventilation guides.

The little data available suggests a wide difference between people and care must therefore be taken in choosing mean votes for an assessment of smoke. If the smoke is considered acceptable by the average person, then 26% of the population are likely to find it objectionable. Some allowance for this spread of sensitivities is proposed.

Application of the research data to offices shows a particular problem related to office size. If the office contains a hundred or more people then the population in it can be considered representative of the working population i.e. containing 50% smokers.

If the office only contains a small number of people then it is likely to contain a wide variety of smokers/non-smokers/heavy smokers/light smokers from time to time. Some provision to cater for different needs of such offices is suggested.

Finally comparison of British and American recommendations agrees reasonably well with the smoking habits of the two countries in normal large offices. The British IHVE Guide 1970 treats smoking in the same way as body odours and relates it to personal space. The ASHRAE Guide more correctly treats it as a simple contaminant.

The preferred ventilation criteria would be related to body odours in crowded areas and smoking requirements in more spacious areas.

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CONTENTS	Page No.
1. BACKGROUND	4
2. SMOKE GENERATION	5
3. IDENTIFICATION OF SMOKE DISCOMFORT	6
4. THE INFLUENCE OF ROOM CONDITIONS ON ODOUR	13
5. THE INFLUENCE OF SMOKE ON THE PASSIVE SMOKER	15
6. ODOURLESS GASES: CARBON MONOXIDE AND CARBON DIOXIDE	19
7. PARTICULATES	21
8. COMPARISON OF GUIDES (SEE APPENDICES 1 & 2)	23
9. DISCUSSION	25
10. DESIGN IMPLICATIONS	28
11. CONCLUSIONS	30
12. REFERENCES	32
13. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	43
TABLES 1 - 8	44-52
APPENDIX 1	53
APPENDIX 2	55
APPENDIX 3	56

1. BACKGROUND

Insulation techniques to minimise the heat loss through the fabric of a building exist and are being widely used. The other type of heat loss is through ventilation.⁽¹⁾ Current research is seeking low cost solutions for controlled ventilation and the key question is how much ventilation is needed. One criteria is the dilution of cigarette smoke to an acceptable level of comfort and health. This note surveys the available literature in four fields. The first is that of smoke generation by the cigarette, the second is the sensitivity of people to smoke, the third is the toxicity of smoke to the passive smoke and the fourth is an examination of ventilation needs.

2. SMOKE GENERATION

When a cigarette is smoked the products of combustion are divided between the mainstream products and the sidestream ones. The mainstream products are drawn through the cigarette by the smoker during the puff period. Those mainstream products not absorbed by the smoker are expelled in subsequent breaths. The sidestream smoke is released directly into the room air during the smouldering combustion stage which occurs between puffs. Most research has concentrated on identifying and quantifying the products of the mainstream smoke to enable the toxic compounds to be reduced. Only recently has interest revived in the sidestream smoke so that the problems of the non-smoker working in a smoky room can be examined.

Machine simulated smoking tends to use a 35 ml puff of two second generation at a rate of one puff a minute. The butt length is usually 23 or 30 mm and the tobacco has a 10% moisture content. This characterizes the smoker. In general more tobacco is burned during the smoulder period than the puff period (20% to 110% more in the sidestream).

Reviews of smoke generation by Wynder and Hoffman 1967 and Hoegg 1972 show the complexity of the combustion process. The sidestream smoke released depends upon the smoulder rate. Tobaccos with high smoulder rates such as Turkish types have over three times the tobacco burned during the smoulder period than the puff period (Johnson 1973). Hensen & Haley 1935 and Neurath 1964 showed the nicotine in the sidestream to increase with increasing moisture content in the tobacco. Smoker habits will also influence the balance between sidestream and mainstream. Deep, frequent puffs will increase the mainstream smoke at the expense of the sidestream.

The general agreement that the sidestream and mainstream combustion products are proportioned according to the amount of tobacco burned in smouldering and puffing does not apply to certain compounds. Bogen 1929 found more ammonia in the sidestream. Johnston 1973 agreed, finding over a hundred times more in the sidestream and some ten times more pyridine. He also noted that hydrogen cyanide was

principally in the mainstream.

The particular problem of oxides of nitrogen was raised by Haagen-Smit, Brunelle & Hara 1959 and studied by Bokhoven et al. 1961. Bokhoven found equal volumes of nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide which amounted to 0.04 mg and 0.51 mg respectively. Galuskinova 1964 searched for benzpyrene, a product of cigarette smoke, and found it varied with the number of cigarettes smoked in rooms.

More recently attention has been directed towards the carbon monoxide dangers of cigarette smoke. More carbon monoxide is released in the sidestream than the mainstream. Brunneman and Hoffman 1974 showed how the mainstream carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide increased with time as the cigarette was smoked. The quantity per puff doubled from first to last puff. Russell, Cole, Idle and Adams 1975 studied a wide range of British cigarettes and found the mainstream yield of carbon monoxide varied from 5-20 mg per cigarette for conventional cigarettes, with a higher value of 28 mg for a semi-synthetic one. In the low nicotine cigarettes the carbon monoxide increased with nicotine content of the tobacco but there was no clear relationship for the high nicotine ones. A summary of the work on carbon monoxide generation is given in Table 4.

Analyses by Hobbs 1956 indicated acrolein to be an important product of mainstream smoke. Work by Weber 1975 using a smoking machine in an environmental chamber showed significant amounts of acrolein. Data on acrolein in cigarettes is given in Table 1. Illustrations of general chemicals in smoke are given in Table 2 and the differences between authors of the major compounds are shown in Table 3.

This analytical work on smoke defines yields in terms of a cigarette. The concentrated sidestream compounds need diluting to an acceptable level for health and comfort. Treating smoke as a simple contaminant means that the necessary dilution can be most clearly expressed in terms of fresh air per cigarette. This

also has the advantage of comparing the subjective results of different authors on a common basis. It has two disadvantages. The first is that the early American cigarettes contained one gram of tobacco while British filter cigarettes contain approximately 600 mg. Fortunately the smoking habits in America are such that a large stub is usually discarded unlike British practice. The tobacco content of current American Filter cigarettes is also lower (~875 mg) than in earlier years. The second potential problem is the wide difference in tar and nicotine between brands which can vary by an order of magnitude (Department of Health 1974). There has been a significant reduction in tar content over recent years but fortunately the tar and nicotine contents of the current market leaders are similar, Table 5, Figure 1.

The smoke in rooms is the sum of the sidestream smoke and the exhaled smoke. Mitchell 1962 found that 20-50% by weight of the mainstream smoke was retained in the smoker even when no smoke was inhaled. Retention was 82% when inhaled for five seconds and reached 97% after thirty seconds. The longer the smoke was retained the smaller were the exhaled particles. Bokhoven & Niessen 1961 measured the absorption of nitrogen oxides and carbon monoxide. They found between 82-87% of the carbon monoxide adsorbed and 87-96% of the nitrogen oxides.

3. IDENTIFICATION OF SMOKE DISCOMFORT

The three types of problem associated with tobacco smoke are poor visibility, unpleasant odour and personal distress through headache or irritation of the eyes or throat. There is common agreement amongst non-smokers of the types of irritation, with eyes being the most sensitive, Table 6.

The visibility criteria is dependent upon the viewing position. Cinemas, where the direction of view is in line with the projection beam, are relatively insensitive to smoke cloud. Enclosed sports arenas where the principal lighting is directly over the action do have to consider the appearance of the smoke haze.

Leopold 1945 studied this by experimenting with the ventilation of a large sports arena. He measured the acceptability of the atmosphere by recording the impressions of five trained individuals who included one non-smoker and one heavy smoker. The recommended ventilation for an acceptable appearance was $32-53 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$. Less than 20% of a sample of the spectators were smoking. This would be approximately $26 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. When the fresh air was reduced to $20-34 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$ the cloud became objectionable (approx. $17 \text{ m}^3/\text{cig.}$). Eye irritation was experienced at the slightly lower flows of $19-31 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$ (approx. $16 \text{ m}^3/\text{cig.}$).

The nature of the activity means that spectators enter and leave at the same time, enjoying two hours of entertainment. They rapidly acclimatise to the odours and no problems of unpleasant smells were noted.

Odour sensitivity and irritation to eyes tend to change with time. The sense of smell rapidly adapts to a new odour while the irritation effects become stronger with exposure. Yaglou 1955 investigated three types of response to people smoking in a room. One type was that of an observer freshly entering the room, one was the of non-smokers who had been exposed to tobacco smoke for 2-4 hours and the final type was the response of the smokers themselves.

Acceptable strength of the tobacco smoke was defined as one of moderate odour or irritation with little or no objection. The visitor required a dilution of $9\text{m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ for acceptability. The comparable figure for the non-smoker was $5.5\text{m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. The smokers were unable to smell the smoke odour and based their judgements on irritation of the eyes, nose and throat and headaches. The dilution required for this was $4\text{m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. At smoke dilutions of $1\text{m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ and less the smoke odour was difficult to perceive by everyone, irritation becoming the major response (Figure 2).

In an earlier study Yaglou 1937⁽¹⁵⁾ examined the disappearance characteristic of tobacco smoke odours once the smoking had stopped. Rather than naturally decaying, the odour intensity of the stale tobacco smoke increased with time for the first hour or two and only then diminished (Figure 3). The practical implication of this is that rooms in which smoking is permitted should be small in size and highly ventilated so that the residence time of the combustion products is kept as short as practicable. Yaglou also measured the effectiveness of the air distribution system which was supplied through perforations near to the ceiling and extracted at floor level. At low air flow rates ($26\text{m}^3/\text{h} \sim 0.65$ air changes/hour) the supply air mixed well with the room air and was practically 100% effective in diluting the air around the room occupants. At high air flow rates ($550\text{m}^3/\text{h} \sim 14$ air changes/hour) the effectiveness of the air supply was down to 65% because of the by-passing of air straight into the exhaust. The effectiveness of the air distribution system should receive particular attention at high ventilation rates.

Harmesen and Effenberger 1957 investigated room pollution and carefully graded air quality in terms of chemical concentrations of nicotine, carbon monoxide and the physical concentration of particulates. They found the quality slightly disagreeable to non-smokers at nicotine concentrations below $1\text{mg}/\text{m}^3$. From Neurath's data (1964) this would mean dilutions of $4\text{m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ for the sidestream component alone.

Keuhner 1953 used a dilution principle to assess the odour strength of cigarettes. He found that the odour of tobacco smoke was insensitive to the brand of cigarette, its burning rate or its freshness.

Halfpenny & Starrett 1961 undertook a careful study on the ventilation needs for aircraft passengers. Likely contamination levels were assessed from specially undertaken field surveys. Subjective assessments were made on a group of people sitting inside a simulated aircraft under a range of contamination conditions. The influence of charcoal filters on odour level was also investigated. The test procedure maintained a single smoke concentration for each test and the irritation level was recorded once the maximum steady response was reached i.e. after 25-30 minutes. Humidity was uncontrolled, with the majority of experiments (80%) carried out between 40-48% r.h. The range of humidity encountered varied from 24-59%. The conclusions showed irritation of eyes, nose and throat to be the comfort criteria since after a few minutes' adaptation observers were unable to detect tobacco smoke. Accepting their finding that an average American cigarette burns 550 mg of tobacco we can interpret the results in terms of fresh air per cigarette. Threshold irritation occurred at $26 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$, moderate irritation occurred at smoke dilutions of 15.6 m^3 fresh air/cigarette and objectionable levels were $6.9 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. Personal differences in irritation to the same smoke concentration were large, Figure 4.

Johansson & Ronge 1964 investigated the irritation effects of a room which was progressively filled with smoke. The strongest irritation effects occurred under warm dry conditions. The three responses studied were eye irritation, nose irritation and air quality. Air quality was the most sensitive factor. Non-smokers were much more sensitive than smokers requiring approximately $5.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ dilution air. Smokers accepted a dilution of $1.6 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. Eye irritation was the next most sensitive factor with little difference in response between smokers and non-smokers. Threshold irritation occurred at

dilution levels of approximately 1.6 m^3 /cigarette. Nose irritation occurred with non-smokers at dilutions of approximately 3.7 m^3 /cigarette. The noses of the smokers were less sensitive and threshold irritation occurred at 1.6 m^3 fresh air/cigarette.

More detailed physiological studies were later made (1965). A significant difference in the development of irritation in the eyes and nose occurred. Eye irritation was higher. For non-smokers nose irritation increased rapidly during the first ten minutes and then remained constant. Eye irritation rose continuously with the smoke concentration.

Surveys of aircraft environments have shown the sensitivity of people with respiratory problems to smoke. The U.S. Department of Health 1971 commissioned measurements on two types of flight. The first was military transport of large numbers of young people over long distances. These planes ran full and carried 165-219 passengers for 7-11 hours. The second were ordinary domestic flights of an hour's duration in planes of 88-128 seat capacity running two-thirds full. The monitoring confirmed that there was no build up of toxic products in either case. The small personal space is compensated by a high air change rate of 15-20 per hour. Passenger responses were similar for the two groups.

Over three thousand passengers were interviewed, of which 56% were smokers. Over 60% of non-smokers reported annoyance from the smoke. More surprisingly one-third of the young military personnel had a medical history of respiratory problems which increased to 41% for the relatively older group flying on the domestic routes. Over 70% of the smokers who had respiratory difficulties were annoyed by other smokers.

The low relative humidity on aircraft (10-20% r.h.) accentuates the respiratory dryness and would be expected to increase the irritation which smoke creates. The results would not normally apply directly to ordinary work conditions. However it does suggest that normal populations contain a significant proportion of people who are particularly sensitive to irritants. Care must be taken in translating results from the laboratory where healthy subjects are carefully selected to a normal work situation containing a wide spectrum of physical disorders. The particular

sensitivity to smoke of people with lung or heart trouble is now becoming recognised (Huber 1975).

Current research at the University of Zurich by Dr. A Weber 1975 is extending the research direction of Johansson and Ronge by investigating many more criteria and measuring the gas composition inside the environmental chamber. For acceptable air quality a fresh air dilution of $10.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ was needed. Acrolein was generated in significant quantities and reached the permissible 8h exposure limit of 0.1 ppm at a smoke dilution rate of $3 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. Acrolein is one of the most powerful toxic lacrimators which is effective at very low concentrations and is particularly quick acting to irritate the conjunctiva and mucous membranes of the respiratory organs (Prentiss 1937).

Speer 1968 investigated the symptoms of a group who reported an allergy to smoke and compared them with a normal group of non-smokers. There was little difference between the two suggesting smoke to be irritative rather than allergic in character. The proportion experiencing eye irritation was particularly large (70%).

4. THE INFLUENCE OF ROOM CONDITIONS ON ODOUR

The three room conditions which influence odour irritation are airflow pattern, humidity and temperature. The airflow pattern can gently direct cigarette smoke into the faces of nearby people creating a local concentration several orders of magnitude higher than the general environment. Humidity has two different types of influence. The first is to determine the moisture content of the tobacco. The second is the effect on odour sensitivity. The moisture content of tobacco is primarily determined by the relative humidity of its environment and can vary from dry to 24% water by weight (when in a saturated atmosphere). In normal conditions approximately 10% water is likely. This water content has an influence on the burning rate. Higher moisture content tobaccos burn more slowly. Jensen and colleagues 1935 related this to a higher nicotine release in the sidestream and hence more odour generation into the room.

The influence of temperature and humidity on odour perception was studied by Kerka & Humphreys 1956. Assessments were made by a panel of trained staff, equally divided between men and women and moderate smokers and non-smokers. The technique used was a very sensitive one of walking into the room and sniffing for a first impression and then again five seconds later. Yaglou's assessment scale was adopted for scoring.

The odour intensity was diminished by both increasing temperature and increasing humidity. In the comfort region of 21°C changing the relative humidity from 30-60% lowered the odour intensity by one-quarter of a vote. This is approximately the same reduction which a temperature rise of 5°C could create (Figure 5). The irritation has a similar pattern but was not so well defined.

Speed of adaptation to odour was also studied. Assessments over a six-minute period showed a reduction in odour intensity of one vote although this was compensated by an almost equal rise in the irritation sensation (Figure 6.).

Assessments of odour intensity over a range of smoke concentrations showed these test methods to require a much more dilute smoke for acceptability than did Yaglou's panel in 1955, Figure 2. Acceptability was a dilution of 120 m³/cigarette.

Johansson & Ronge 1964 investigated the influence of two relative humidity levels 33% and 85% at 25°C on irritation created by tobacco smoke. They confirmed that dry conditions increased the irritation of eyes and nose. Subsequent tests (1965) showed that in a cool environment around 18-19°C the effect of humidity was less and irritation was highest at moderate humidities.

5. THE INFLUENCE OF SMOKE ON THE PASSIVE SMOKER

Jones, 1923, in studying the build up of carbon monoxide from cigarettes, found that irritation of the eyes occurred at 9 ppm of carbon monoxide which was well below any health limits of the period. Anderson & Delhamn 1973 measured the carbon monoxide build up over two hours in a ventilated test room containing smokers and non-smokers. The mean carbon monoxide level was 4.5 ppm and the mean particulate concentration was 3 mg/m^3 with a maximum of 13 mg/m^3 . The maximum nicotine concentration was 0.38 mg/m^3 . Most test subjects experienced eye irritation and a few had headaches under these conditions.

Hoegg 1972 reviewed the existing literature, and measured the carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide and particulate content of both the mainstream and sidestream smoke. This for the first time enabled him to calculate the effective cigarette consumption of from 0.01-0.2 per hour by non-smokers in the average closed space. The particulate matter frequently exceeded the standard recommendation of 0.26 mg/m^3 . Harke 1970 found that the theoretical assimilation of smoke compounds did not correspond with the real situation but overestimated the absorption. Carbon monoxide measurements in the blood and the nicotine content in the urine were compared for non-smokers and smokers sharing the same room. The non-smokers had less than one hundredth of the nicotine content of deep inhaling smokers. Further studies, Harke et al. 1972, included the measurement of acrolein and aldehydes showed that intense smoking was needed to exceed the maximum allowable concentrations (30 cigarettes in an unventilated room of 38.2 m^3). Harke and Bleichart 1972 studied skin temperature, electrocardiograms, blood pressure and pulse for smokers and non-smokers in a smoke filled room. The skin temperature of the smokers decreased after starting to smoke. No physiological change was noted in the passive smokers.

Russell Cole & Brown 1973 measured the carbon monoxide absorbed in the bloodstream of twenty volunteers of which six were smokers who inhaled. In an unventilated room of 43 m^3 the

average carbon monoxide concentration was 38 ppm. There was a sixty percent increase in carboxyhaemoglobin in the bloodstream of both groups although the smokers' blood contained 5.9% at the start of the experiment compared with the non-smokers' average of 1.6%. Subtle perceptual abilities such as visual acuity, brightness threshold and time interval discrimination may be impaired at carboxyhaemoglobin concentrations in the bloodstream of 3%. Three non-smokers reached this. Further investigations, Russell and Feyerabend 1975, revealed that of 39 urban non-smokers half had measurable quantities of nicotine in their plasma, all had nicotine in their urine. Measurements from smokers and non-smokers after 78 minutes' exposure to heavy smoking showed that while smokers had a far higher level of nicotine in their urine (1236 ng/ml) the normal non-smoker concentration of 10.7 ng/ml had increased to 80 ng/ml after exposure.

This growing concern for the non-smoker prompted a seminar organised by Rylander 1975. Corn reviewed the sidestream smoke with emphasis on the particulate content. Coagulation of these particulates results in an increase in modal size by a factor of three over four minutes (0.15 dia. at the start). The decay rate of particulates was twice that of the carbon monoxide content. McNall showed that high performance filters could remove the particulate matter. Activated charcoal, the most suitable filter for the removal of the vapour constituents was not so successful in removing the irritants and tobacco odours. Inhalation of smoke was considered by Muir. Carbon monoxide absorption would be affected by nose or mouth breathing. Particulate matter was more complex. Nose breathing will filter much of the particulate matter, though special compounds such as nicotine can be absorbed from the nose mucous. Cederlof and Colley searched for epidemiological data. Prevalence of coughs in children was associated with their parents' smoking habits, prevalence being lowest when both parents were non-smokers and highest when both parents smoked.

Taylor found little evidence of allergy. Stewart reviewed the response to carbon monoxide, showing how low concentrations (1-5% carboxyhaemoglobin in blood) accelerated the flow in normal healthy people but could create distress to a heart patient with little reserve. Large amounts (2-9% in blood) reduced the exercise tolerance. Headaches were expected at 16-20%, though such concentrations may be lethal for severe heart patients. Kilburn highlighted the lack of health data for non-smokers exposed to a tobacco smoke environment.

The U.S. Surgeon General's report 1972 concluded that tobacco can contribute to discomfort and that in some situations the carbon monoxide concentration may exceed the threshold limit value. This may be harmful to people already suffering from chronic bronchopulmonary disease and coronary heart disease. Other components of smoke such as the oxides of nitrogen and the particulate matter have been shown to affect animals but their influence on humans is not known. Fletcher and colleagues 1973 reviewed the problem for the British Royal College of Physicians and reached a similar conclusion. They could find no evidence of other people's smoke being dangerous to healthy non-smokers, but it could be extremely irritating and cause distressing symptoms especially for people already affected by heart or lung disease. The smoke from pipes and cigars was found to be at least as irritating as that from cigarettes. Caution was urged with regard to carbon monoxide levels since overcrowded, ill-ventilated rooms or enclosed spaces such as cars could contain concentrations higher than those permitted in industry.

In addition to the nicotine, carbon monoxide and particulate matter discussed so far, the Surgeon General's U.S. Report 1964 included the relative concentrations of different compounds in the mainstream smoke and related these values to the acceptable tolerance levels. This data is used as the base for Table 2 taken with the current ACGIH 1971 values of tolerance. This emphasises the importance of acrolein.

Schmeltz, Hoffman & Wynder 1975 review the problems of the passive smoker and while agreeing that no evidence of chronic illness is available do show that increased respiratory ailments in children occur when exposed to smoke.

6. ODOURLESS GASES: CARBON MONOXIDE AND CARBON DIOXIDE

Cigarette smoke contains a large proportion of carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide. Both gases are toxic in sufficient concentration and must be diluted with fresh air to an acceptable level. The maximum concentrations are specified in terms of exposure time and likely fitness of the inhabitants. Davies 1975 reviews the limits specified for different purposes by several countries. Normal occupations of eight hour duration for healthy people have a maximum threshold value (TLV) of 50 ppm for carbon monoxide in America. The British IHVE Guide 1970 accepts these standards. Exposure for continuous periods of ninety days and longer call for a lower concentration and spacecraft have a TLV of 15 ppm of carbon monoxide. The most sensitive criteria is that of the general population who include a number of very young, sick and aged people. The American recommendation for this group is 9 ppm. The Russians ask for 1 ppm, Table 7.

Sensitivity to carbon dioxide is low and unlikely to be noticed below concentrations of 10,000 ppm. Above this concentration breathing will deepen and at 30,000-50,000 ppm there is a conscious need for increased respiratory effort which is objectionable. The use of carbon dioxide as a guide for other contaminants such as body odours has led to the suggestion of an upper limit of 1000 ppm. Recent Russian work of Goromosov 1968 proposes an even lower value of 500 ppm.

Recent studies by Hoegg 1972 and Johnson and colleagues 1973 showed a high release of carbon monoxide in the sidestream smoke of cigarettes of 56-88 mg/cigarette. Sporzolini & Savion 1973 only measured 3-5 mg/cigarette with Italian Cigarettes. Taking the data of Hoegg as the worst case and allowing for a non-inhaler so that only 55% of the carbon monoxide is absorbed by the smoker we need 1.65 m^3 of fresh air per cigarette to prevent the carbon monoxide from exceeding 50 ppm. Jones & Fagan 1974 used the slightly smaller carbon monoxide value proposed by the American Surgeon General in 1962 but also took into account the small natural carbon monoxide release from people and

achieved similar values.

The carbon monoxide released from people was found to be 0.39 mg/person/hour by Conkle 1967 in measurements on a simulated spacecraft. Owens & Rossano 1969 used a value of 11.6 mg/h for a non-smoker and 17.4 mg/h for a smoker. Such wide differences are difficult to explain. Davies 1975 shows how 75-80% of the carbon monoxide in a submarine comes from cigarette smoking. Electrical fires, cooking and personal emission provide the rest. In urban areas cars can generate a high background level of carbon monoxide which would have to be added to the carbon monoxide from the cigarette smoke. The daily fluctuations of carbon monoxide concentration in a London street were monitored by Lawther and Commins 1970. They found a progressive build up over the day reaching over 50 ppm at 18.00 h. Measurements of the carbon monoxide in work areas showed that peak concentrations of 100 ppm could exist near to smokers. Their general conclusion from a wide study of the problem was that smoking outweighed the contribution to carbon monoxide pollution made by traffic. Godin, Wright & Shephard 1972 sampled five hundred points in Toronto. They found the ambient concentration related to traffic density. Their estimation of the carbon monoxide exposure of a typical city dweller was on average 2 ppm at home, 3 ppm at work and 20 ppm car driving and walking. Spot checks in a busy ferryboat showed the carbon monoxide levels to be much lower in the non-smoking areas (3 ppm) than in the smoking compartments (18.4 ppm). They noted that the combination of smoking and high ambient outdoor concentrations could bring indoor concentrations of carbon monoxide above the permitted 24 hour level.

7. PARTICULATES

Hoegg 1972 reviewed the nature of the particulate phase in smoke. The particulates are submicron sizes (0.2μ for mainstream smoke, 0.15μ for sidestream smoke). Few particles in the sidestream smoke measured more than 0.7μ dia. and none larger than 2μ were found during Hoegg's three hour observation period. These sizes are considered respirable i.e. can reach the periphery of the human lung.

Biersteker, de Graff and Nass 1965 measured indoor and outdoor smoke concentrations in sixty houses in Rotterdam during winter when the windows were more likely to be closed. Outdoor levels of $0.08-0.36 \text{ mg/m}^3$ were recorded and the indoor range was $0.06-0.3 \text{ mg/m}^3$. The presence of smokers in the house increased the particulate level significantly but the dominant factor was outdoor pollution. It was unusual for the indoor level to exceed the outdoor one. Typical American dust concentrations in rural and suburban districts are $0.06-0.6 \text{ mg/m}^3$ and is an order of magnitude higher in industrial districts. Samples suggest a seasonal variation in mean dust size from $2-3\mu$ in winter to 1.2μ in summer, combined with a lower dust concentration in summer, (Whitby 1957, Waibel, & Wanner 1974). Measurements in a laboratory residence in Kansas showed typical indoor dust concentrations to be 0.07 mg/m^3 (Annis 1973). Yocum, Clink and Cole 1971 measured particulates in Hartford, USA and found the outdoor concentration varied from 0.05 to 0.1 mg/m^3 while the range of two houses varied between $0.04 - 0.07 \text{ mg/m}^3$. Lefcoe 1971 carried out particle counts in domestic premises and shows how smoking one cigar raised the particle count from 10 to 100 times the original figure. The particle counts stayed high for at least three hours. Hoegg 1972 quantified this by weighing the total particulate matter in the mainstream and sidestream smoke. On average the mainstream smoke contained 36.2 mg/cig. whereas the total sidestream smoke contained only $25.8 \text{ mg/cigarette.}$ Some 20-50% of smoke particles are retained in the mouth from the mainstream smoke when the smokers do not inhale. Smokers who inhale retain 70% of the mainstream smoke particles. The particulates released to the room will be from 3 mg/cig.

for the smokers who inhale, to 55 mg/cig. for those who do not. Accepting the threshold limit value TLV of 10 mg/m^3 (Bridge & Corn 1972) then this will be equivalent to an air dilution rate of $3.7\text{--}5.5 \text{ m}^3$ air/cigarette.

Newsome and Keith 1957 investigated the influence of smoking conditions on 'tar yield'. The relative humidity of the atmosphere was shown to have a strong influence on smoke generation. Lower relative humidities increased the smoke generation. There was a 50% increase in smoke when the relative humidity was decreased from 80% to 25%.

Hinds and First 1973 measured the nicotine concentration in a range of public rooms such as restaurants, cocktail lounges, and airline waiting rooms and also in commuter trains and buses. Their estimate of cigarette smoke concentration was an order of magnitude lower than that estimated by Hoegg 1972 or Bridge & Corn 1973. This was because the volume of space in such areas was not the small office volume used by the earlier authors but was estimated to be $28\text{--}4,200 \text{ m}^3$ /person. In such public areas the annoyance is more likely to occur through peak concentrations of smoke or irritation due to the gaseous compounds.

Rylander 1974 outlined the findings of a World Health Organisation working party on the progressive health risks of persistent exposure to particulates. Respiratory symptoms would be expected if the annual arithmetic mean particulate concentration exceeded 0.1 mg/m^3 , patients with pulmonary disease would be expected to worsen under daily smoke averages of 0.25 mg/m^3 and hospital admissions would be expected to be higher in areas of daily averages of 0.5 mg/m^3 . Community Air Quality Standards 1969 recommend average particulate concentrations below 0.075 mg/m^3 to avoid any undesirable effects to anyone, including the very young, the very old and the sick. This extreme calls for air dilution more than two orders of magnitude greater than the Threshold Limit Values recommended for workers. Recommended maximum concentrations for particulates are summarised in Table 8.

8. COMPARISON OF GUIDES (SEE APPENDICES 1 & 2)

Recommendations for appropriate fresh air requirements are made in the Institution of Heating and Ventilating Engineers 1970 Guide and in the Draft Code of Practice CP3 for British Standards.

The IHVE Guide gives two sets of fresh air recommendations. The first (Table A1.7) is for offices and residences where the occupation density is known. This has a minimum value related to the personal space and is based on Yaglou's 1936 work on acceptable body odours. The recommended values for rooms where smoking is not permitted is 50% higher than the minimum. When smoking is permitted the recommended dilution is double the body odour minimum. The second (Table A9.24) recommends fresh air quantities for air conditioned spaces. This proposes three levels of fresh air ventilation. One is $29 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person for factories where smoking is not allowed. The second is $43 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person in offices where heavy smoking is expected. The third value is $90 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ for executive offices where very heavy smoking is likely.

The British Standard Draft Code of Practice elegantly offers a range of different criteria from which the appropriate ventilation needs can be derived. Condensation problems, combustion needs, odour dilution and tobacco smoke annoyance are considered in detail. The dilution for acceptable cigarette smoke is chosen to be $10 \text{ m}^3/\text{cig}$.

American requirements (ASHRAE 1972) vary from an absolute minimum of $8.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person in non-smoking areas to $42.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person in rooms where smoking is permitted. Recommended values are $13 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person for no smoking areas and $68 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person in smoking areas. Present American practice interprets these guidelines to give a fresh air rate of at least $17 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person in apartments and preferably $34 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$. Board rooms where very heavy smoking is likely have at least $51 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person and preferably $85 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$. Offices vary from a minimum of $25 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$ for the general office where smoking is permitted to $51 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$ for the preferred value of a private office containing people likely to smoke heavily.

From these recommendations two factors emerge. The British Guide treats smoking as it if were a body odour and the difference between areas where smoking is permitted and where it is not is a factor of two. The Americans have similar preferred dilution rates to the British for general office but at minimum permissible rates advise five times more air for smokers. The Americans treat smoke as a simple contaminant, Figure 8., but offer the designer a very wide choice of dilution.

9. DISCUSSION

The literature shows that our sense of smell is good but fatigues quickly. Yaglou 1955 showed how much more sensitive observers entering a room were to smell than the occupants themselves. Consolazio and Pecora 1947 and Kerka and Humphreys 1956 also found this. The rapid decline in smell perception was countered by an increase in irritation of respiratory passages and eyes with time. Johansson & Ronge 1965 showed how eye irritation was proportional to the smoke concentration while nose irritation was not. The survey work of 'Which' 1975 and the current research of Dr. Weber, ETH Zurich confirms the eye sensitivity. Analysis of the aircraft survey work 1971 revealed a significant proportion of the 'normal' public have a respiratory history and these people are particularly affected in their breathing in the dry smokey atmosphere of aircraft.

Only one reference has been located which highlights the differences in sensitivity between people. Halfpenny and Starrett 1961 showed that their assessment panel had a wide range of responses to each smoke concentration. On a six point scale from 0 = no smell to 5 = intolerable the standard deviation in assessments was 0.73 vote. This wide difference between people means that when the average vote is say the threshold vote of 1.0 then one quarter of the population will say the odour is moderate i.e. vote 2.0 and 2% will find it objectionable and vote 3.0. This means that it is possible for the same atmosphere to be intolerable to one person while only just of perceptible irritation to another. This wide variation suggests that for 98% success we should consider the mean smoke dilution one vote lower than we normally would use. Using the average value will only satisfy 74% of the population (Figure 4).

Examination of the cigarette smoke suggests the three main health factors to be carbon monoxide, particulate matter and acrolein. The permitted limit for 8 hour exposure to carbon monoxide has progressively been lowered over recent years and is now 50 ppm

by volume (ACGIH 1971). The preferred limit is 9 ppm (EPA 1971). If this lower figure is accepted then cigarette smoke will require a dilution of $9 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. The next most sensitive index is the particulate matter released into the atmosphere by the cigarette. If the maximum ACGIH value of $10 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ is not to be exceeded then the dilution necessary will be $5 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$. In dry atmospheres where more smoke is created it may have to be higher (Newsome & Keith 1957). One of the most powerful of the pungent gases is acrolein which is a toxic lacrimator specifically irritating the conjunctiva of the eyes and the mucous membrane of the respiratory passages. Its effect is practically instantaneous. The maximum permitted average level is 0.1 ppm for an eight hour exposure although occasional excursions up to 0.3 ppm are permitted. Dilution rates of at least $3 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ are needed to ensure a sufficiently low acrolein concentration (Figure 8).

The wide range of findings between researchers are shown in Figure 2. This may reflect the differences in the tobacco used and in the many ways of smoking it. More accurate analyses of ordinary smoking conditions are now needed. The more recent results suggest an average dilution of $20 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ to cater for the average person. This is twice the amount needed for the most sensitive ACGIH health recommendations for the working environment. To allow for differences between people we should double the dilution to $40 \text{ m}^3/\text{cigarette}$ to cater for 98% of the population.

Applying these results to British practice is difficult partly because of lack of comparable data on subjective response and tobacco chemistry and partly because the smokers habits are different. The amount of tobacco burnt per cigarette depends on the size of the original cigarette and the length of the butt thrown away. This butt length is believed to reflect the purchasing power of the smoker. The American 'King size' cigarette is 85 mm long and average butt lengths are 30-31 mm. With a tobacco weight for a plain cigarette of approximately 1 gm this suggests each cigarette burns 650 mg of tobacco. British plain cigarettes are 700 mg/cigarette.

and 70 mm long with an average butt length of 20 mm i.e., 500 g

day without adverse effect. The wide range of individual differences

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It was stated that the above information was obtained from the records of the FBI.

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1. The first part of the document is a letter from the Director of the FBI to the Director of the CIA, dated 10/10/54. The letter is signed by J. Edgar Hoover and is addressed to Allen Dulles. The subject of the letter is the "Matter of the [redacted] and [redacted]".

... ..

since 1945, the number of letters sent has increased

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smoking habits. The probability levels are indicated by the shading.

different areas concerning smoking is shown in Table 10. 20

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10. DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

Caution is needed in translating laboratory studies into practical situations. In the laboratory every precaution is taken to ensure uniform mixing within the room and fans ensure this. In normal rooms the air flow pattern, velocity and turbulence can result in non-uniform conditions within the room. Smoke has a relatively large particle size ($\sim 0.2\mu$) and therefore has a very low natural diffusion. The degree and uniformity of dilution therefore depends upon the mechanical mixing with the room air.

Accepting an average cigarette consumption of 17 per day per smoker for Britain and 29 for USA we need to calculate appropriate clean air dilution rates. Assuming eight hours sleep and three hours over the day for meals the average consumption will be 1.3 cigs/hour for British smokers and 2.2 cigs/hour for Americans. The minimum air flow for this average smoker necessary to keep the carbon monoxide level below 9 ppm is $12 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ for Britain and $20 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ for America. Preferred values will be at least $52 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per smoker in Britain and $88 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ in America. The probability concept of Halfpenny & Starrett 1961 can be applied to large open plan offices containing one hundred people or more. Such an office is likely to represent a normal population cross-section and only half will smoke. This means that the ventilation rate per person will be half that needed for the smoker. This agrees with the current British Guide. However the worst situation is that of the two person office where there is a high probability that both may smoke or one may smoke at a higher rate than average. For offices of small size it would be desirable to introduce some flexibility in design so that while the fresh air for the building would be constant there would be some adjustment between offices to cater for individual differences in smoking habits. The probability levels of the offices of different sizes containing smokers is shown in Figure 10. Such an approach could be extended as more data becomes available on smoking habits.

For comparison the minimum amount of fresh air ventilation needed to control body odours in an office of 8 m^3 per person is approximately $20 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$. Where smoking is permitted the

corresponding fresh air is $40 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}/\text{person}$. The American minimum is $8.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ per person in non-smoking areas and $42 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ with smoking. Preferred values for U.S. offices are $51 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$. The empirical development of the air conditioning engineers in refining their codes of practice in the light of experience agrees with the laboratory expectations of large offices.

Body odours are related to personal volume and odour concentration while cigarette smoke is a simple pollutant and only relates to smoke concentration. Ventilation air should be considered separately for these two functions and the highest value chosen. In offices where the personal volume is small the ventilation should be based on body odours, in spacious offices the ventilation should be based on likely smoking habits. This approach is used by ASHRAE.

11. CONCLUSIONS

1. The amount of fresh air needed to dilute cigarette smoke is the dominant design criterion for ventilation design. Over twice the air is necessary for the average smoker than for the dilution of normal body odours.
2. Environmental standards are reviewed and compared with the products of burning tobacco. Most of the research in cigarette smoke has been concerned with the mainstream inhaled smoke. It is only recently that the sidestream smoke, which affects the passive smoker, has been studied in depth. Carbon monoxide is the most critical health factor if the recommended limit of 9 ppm is accepted. Nine cubic metres of air are needed per cigarette to keep below 9 ppm. Particulate matter from cigarettes is the next most sensitive and acrolein, a toxic lacrimator particularly sensitive to eyes and respiratory passages, is the third.
3. Comparison of the different research studies on a common basis of air dilution needed per cigarette shows a wide variation in results. This can partly be attributed to the differences in tobacco, smoking conditions and my crude assumptions taken to bring the data on a common base. The little data available on differences between people suggests that these are wide. The mean assessment of an environment would only satisfy 74% of the population and to cater for 98% requires a doubling of the air flow.
4. Application of laboratory data to offices shows a wide difference between small offices and large offices. Large offices of 100 or more people are likely to be representative of the country's working population. Small offices are much more likely to contain a wide variety of occupants, on some occasions all smokers and other times all non-smokers. Some flexibility in design of such offices to cater for these differences is proposed.

5. There is reasonable agreement in the Codes of Practice of Britain and America to reflect the smokers habits of the respective countries for normal large office conditions. The British IHVE Guide over-supplies dilution air in crowded smoky rooms and undersupplies in spacious rooms where smoking is permitted. There is a strong argument of principle in favour of treating smoking as a simple contaminant as the Americans do rather than linking it with body odour dilution.
6. More research is needed into the variability between people on the detailed air movement within rooms, and on the detailed gas composition in rooms containing smokers.

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Yaglou, C.P.

Riley, E.C. &

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13. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The helpful co-operation of the Tobacco Research Council in providing much of the market research data is gratefully acknowledged. Many valuable discussions with colleagues have drawn my attention to many of the less well-known references. The generous co-operation from Mrs. D. Weber, ETH, Zurich, must be particularly acknowledged for permitting me to quote from unpublished research. Calculations of smoke concentrations in terms of fresh air per cigarette have been made on many papers where necessary data for this purpose was not given. Simple assumptions have been made in such cases to establish an order of magnitude.

TABLE 1

ACROLEIN PRESENT IN CIGARETTE SMOKE

Author	Machine smoking: Laboratory studies		
	mainstream mg/kg	sidestream mg/cig.	Total mg/cig.
Newsome, Norman & Keith 1965	0.07		
Wynder & Hoffman 1967	0.007		
Harke, Baars, Frahm & Peters 1972			0.4-0.6
Horfman, Rothcamp, Brunneman & Wynder, 1973	0.075		
Weber, 1975			0.7

-44-

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TABLE 2

GASES FOUND IN CIGARETTE SMOKE (from Hobbs 1956 quoted in Surgeon General's Report)

	Conc. ppm	Threshold limit values for [†] 8h exposure ppm	Ratio above threshold	Toxic action on lung*
Carbon monoxide	42,000	50	840	Unknown
Carbon dioxide	92,000	5000	18.4	None
Methane, ethane etc.	87,000	500*	174	None
Acetylene, ethylene	31,000	5000*	6.2	None
Formaldehyde	30	2	15	Irritant
Acetaldehyde	3,200	100	32	Irritant
Acrolein	150	0.1	1500	Irritant
Methanol	700	200	3.5	Irritant
Acetone	1,100	1000	1.1	Irritant
Methyl ethyl ketone	500	250*	2	Irritant
Ammonia	300	25	12	Irritant
Nitrogen dioxide	250	5	50	Irritant
Methyl nitrite	200	-	-	Unknown
Hydrogen sulphide	40	10	4	Irritant
Hydrogen cyanide	1,600	10* [‡]	160	Enzyme poison
Methyl chloride	1,200	100	12	Unknown

*Values from Surgeon General report 1972

†American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists 1971

‡On skin

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TABLE 3

CHEMICAL ANALYSES OF MAINSTREAM AND SIDESTREAM TOBACCO SMOKE

		CO mg/cig.	CO ₂ mg/cig.	Nicotine mg/cig.	Formal mg/cig.	Aldehydes mg/cig.	Ammonia mg/cig.	Phenols mg/cig.	Hydrogen cyanide µg/cig.	Pyridines µg/cig.	Oxides of nitrogen mg/cig.	Acrolein µg/cig.	TPM mg/cig.	Tobacco smoked mg/cig.
Bogen 1929	M	3.5	38	0.2	0	0.4	0							
	S	14	605	9	0.4	1.3	3.0							
Jenson & Haley 1935	M			1.5										
	S			1.8										
Bokhoven & Niessen 1961	M	9	53											
	S													
Neurath et al 1964	M			1.5				0.2						347
	S			4.1				0.6						411
Keith & Tash 1965	M	16.2	68.1						300				40.6	
	S													
Newsome, Norman & Keith 1965	M	23	77			1.1F	0.13		290			79		
	S													
Wynder & Hoffman 1967	M											70	~ 26F	
	S													
Scarselliati & Savino 1968	M	22F	72F	0.46F			0.1-0.15F				0.012			
	S	3-5F	57-98F	0.8-1.7F			7-7.5F				0.077			
Hoegg 1972	M	18.6											36.2	
	S	87.6											25.8	
Hoffman & Wynder 1972	M	18F	60F	1.4F		0.77F			361F	27F		71F	20.3F	
	S													
Hoffman 1973	M	16.2	66.8	1.4F		0.77F	0.8	0.28	~ 160F	27F		71F	20.3F	
	S													
Johnson et al. 1973	M	22	76	2.6:1 ^f			0.5		305	20:1 ^f				230
	S	56	617				5.3		17					490
Brunneman & Hoffman 1974	M	16.3F	54.6F											
	S													
Penkala & Oliviera 1975	M	82.7											17.3	
	S													

* assumed 10 puffs per cigarette

^f only ratios given: sidestream to mainstream

F signifies filter cigarette

M signifies mainstream smoke

S signifies sidestream smoke

TABLE 4
CARBON MONOXIDE GENERATION BY CIGARETTES

Author	Machine smoking				People smoking
	Year	Mainstream mg/cig.	Sidestream mg/cig.	Total mg/cig.	Total in room cal. as mg/cig.
Jones, Yano and Berger	1923				47 calculated
Bogen	1929	3.5-18.6	14		
Harmsen and Effenburger	1957				126-188 calculated
Keith & Tesh	1965	16.2			
Srch	1967				22 calculated
Bogardus & Rampskill	1968				48 author's own data
Harke	1970			79	
Bridge & Corn	1972			129	89 author's est.
Harke, Baars, Frahn, Peters & Schultz	1972			70-94	> 45
Hoegg	1972	19	88		
Hoffman, Rathcamp, Brunnemann & Wynder	1973	16.2			
Johnson, Hale, Nedlock, Grubbs & Powell	1973	22	56	78	
Scassellati-Sporzolini Savino	1973	18.9-23.4	3.0-4.9	21.9-28.3	
Hoffman, Rathcamp, Brunnemann & Wynder	1973	16.2			
Russell, Cole and Brown	1973				>22 calculated
Brunnemann & Hoffman	1974	13			
Penkala & Oliviera	1975		---	82.7	
Russell, Cole Idle & Adams	1975	4.9-28.1			
Davies	1975				100 calculated

TABLE 5

MARKET SHARES OF TOP FOUR BRANDS OF CIGARETTES 1973 .

Share [†]	Brand	Filter	Approx. wt. tobacco per 1000 cigs.* gms	Nicotine ^x yield mg/cig.	Tar Yield ^x mg/cig.
18.5	Players No. 6 filter	Yes	550	1.3	19
18.5	Embassy Tipped	Yes	750	1.3	19
7.0	Embassy Regal	Yes	700	1.1	17
6.0	Benson & Hedges King size	Yes	900	1.2	19

^xHealth Department: Great Britain June, 1974[†]Tobacco Research Council

TABLE 6
PHYSICAL IRRITATION CAUSED BY SMOKERS

BOGEN	SPEER		GAMERON	"WHICH" CONSUMER MAGAZINE
1929	1968		1972	February 1975
U.S. Sample size not given	U.S. 250 non-allergic, 191 allergic		U.S. 1710 children	British: 1155 adults
smokers	non-smokers		7-15 yrs. old	non-smokers
Ill-effects: % population	Ill-effects: % population		Ill-effects: % population	Irritation type: % population
	Non-allergic	Allergic		
Shortness of breath 35%	Eye irritation 69%	73%	Eye irritation 47%	Stinging eyes 26%
Biting and irritation 30%	Nose symptoms 29%	67%	Cough 37%	Coughing 16%
Coughing 30%	Headache 32%	46%	Headache 12%	Difficult breathing 8%
Burning 15%	Cough 25%	46%	Nasal irritation 11%	Nasal irritation 6%
Nausea 10%	Wheezing 4%	22%	Throat, nausea 5-10%	Sore throat 6%
Palpitation of heart 5%	Sore throat 6%	23%		Nausea 5%
Hoarseness 5%	Nausea 6%	15%		Headache 3%
Salivation 5%	Hoarseness 4%	16%		Dizziness 1%
	Dizziness 6%	5%		

TABLE 7

CURRENT MAXIMUM RECOMMENDED EXPOSURE LEVELS FOR CARBON MONOXIDE (AFTER DAVIES 1975).

Group	Country	Designation	Max. carbon monoxide conc. ppm by volume	Reference
normal occupations (eight hour exposure)	UK	TLV	50	IHVE 1970
	USA	TLV	50	ACGIH 1973
	DFR	MAK	50	MAK werte liste 1971 from Harke et al 1972.
	Czech.	TLV	30	ACGIH 1971
	USSR	TLV	18	Justov & Tiunov 1971
totally enclosed occupations (continuous exposure)	UK (submarines)	MPC ₉₀	25*	Davies 1975
	USA (submarines)	MPC ₉₀	25	NASA 1973
	USA (spacecraft)	MPC ₉₀	15	NASA 1973
	USA (spacecraft)	MPC ₁₀₀₀	15	NASA 1973

TLV Threshold limit value

MPC Maximum permissible concentration (suffix denotes
exposure days)

* Recommended to change to 15 ppm

TABLE 7 continued.....

Group	Country	Designation	Max. carbon monoxide conc. ppm by volume	Reference
general population (continuous exposure)	USA	MPC	9	EPA 1971
	DFR	MPC	8	Knelson 1972
	USSR	MPC	1	Kustov & Tiunov 1971

MPC Maximum permissible concentration (suffix denotes exposure days)

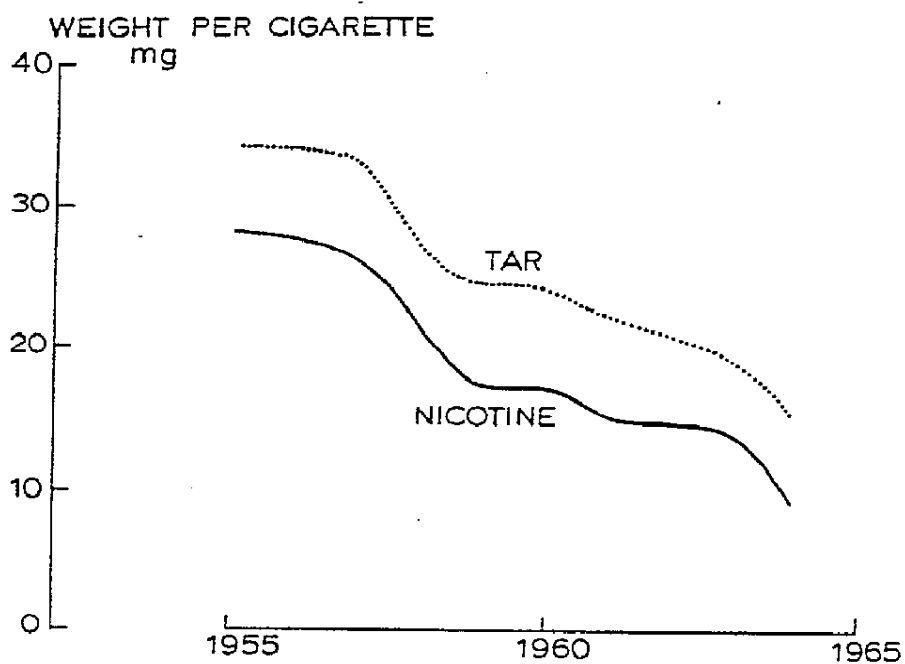
TABLE 8

CURRENT MAXIMUM RECOMMENDED EXPOSURE LEVELS FOR PARTICULATES, PHENOLS AND ALDEHYDES

Group	Pollutant	Authority	Designation	Maximum concentration		Source
				mg/m ³	ppm by volume	
normal occupations 8h exposure/ day	particulates	ACGIH 1971	TLV	10.0	-	IHVE 1970
	phenol	ACGIH 1971	TLV	19.0	5.0	IHVE 1970
	cresol	ACGIH 1971	TLV	22.0	5.0	IHVE 1970
	formaldehyde	ACGIH 1971	TLV	3.0	2.0	IHVE 1970
	acrolein	ACGIH 1971	TLV	0.25	0.1	IHVE 1970
general population (continuous exposure)	particulates	WHO 1972	respiratory symptoms	0.1	-	Rylander 1974
		AIHA 1969	AQV	0.075	-	AIHAJ 1969
	Total phenols	AIHA 1969	AQV	0.1	-	AIHAJ 1969
	formaldehyde	AIHA 1968	AQV	0.15	0.1	AIHAJ 1968
	acrolein	AIHA 1968	AQV	0.025	0.01	AIHAJ 1968

WHO = World Health Organisation; AIHA=Am.Ind. Hyg. Assoc.; AIHAJ = Am. Ind. Hyg. Assoc. Journal

AQV = Air quality value; TLV = Threshold limit value; ACGH = American Comm. Gov. Ind. Hyg.



MOSHY 1967
ED. WYNDER & HOFFMAN
ACADEMIC PRESS

FIGURE 1.
CHANGE IN TAR AND NICOTINE IN AMERICAN
CIGARETTES.

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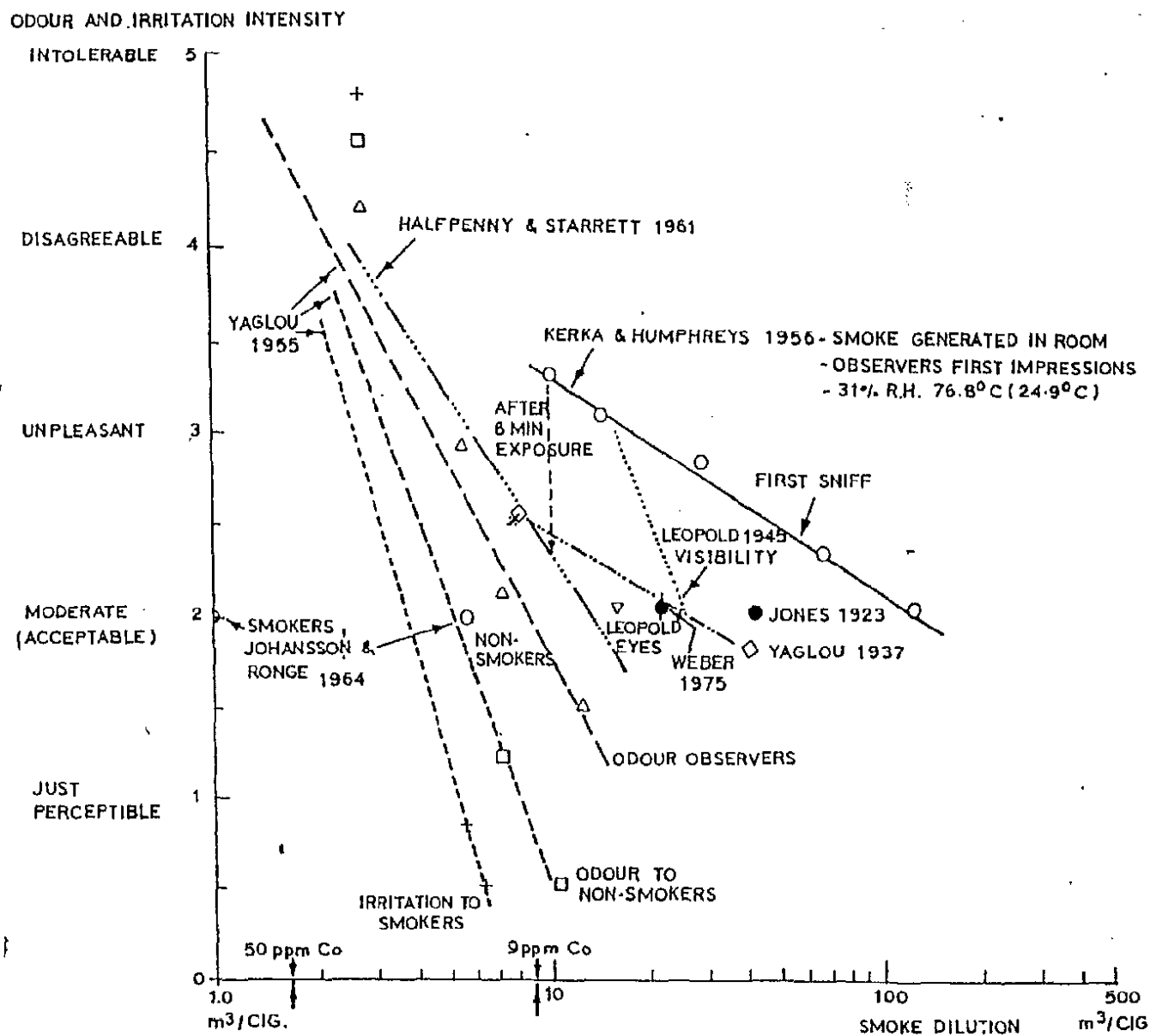


FIGURE 2.
PERCEPTION OF ODOURS AND IRRITATION AS A FUNCTION OF SMOKE
DILUTION.

FCRC/M 870

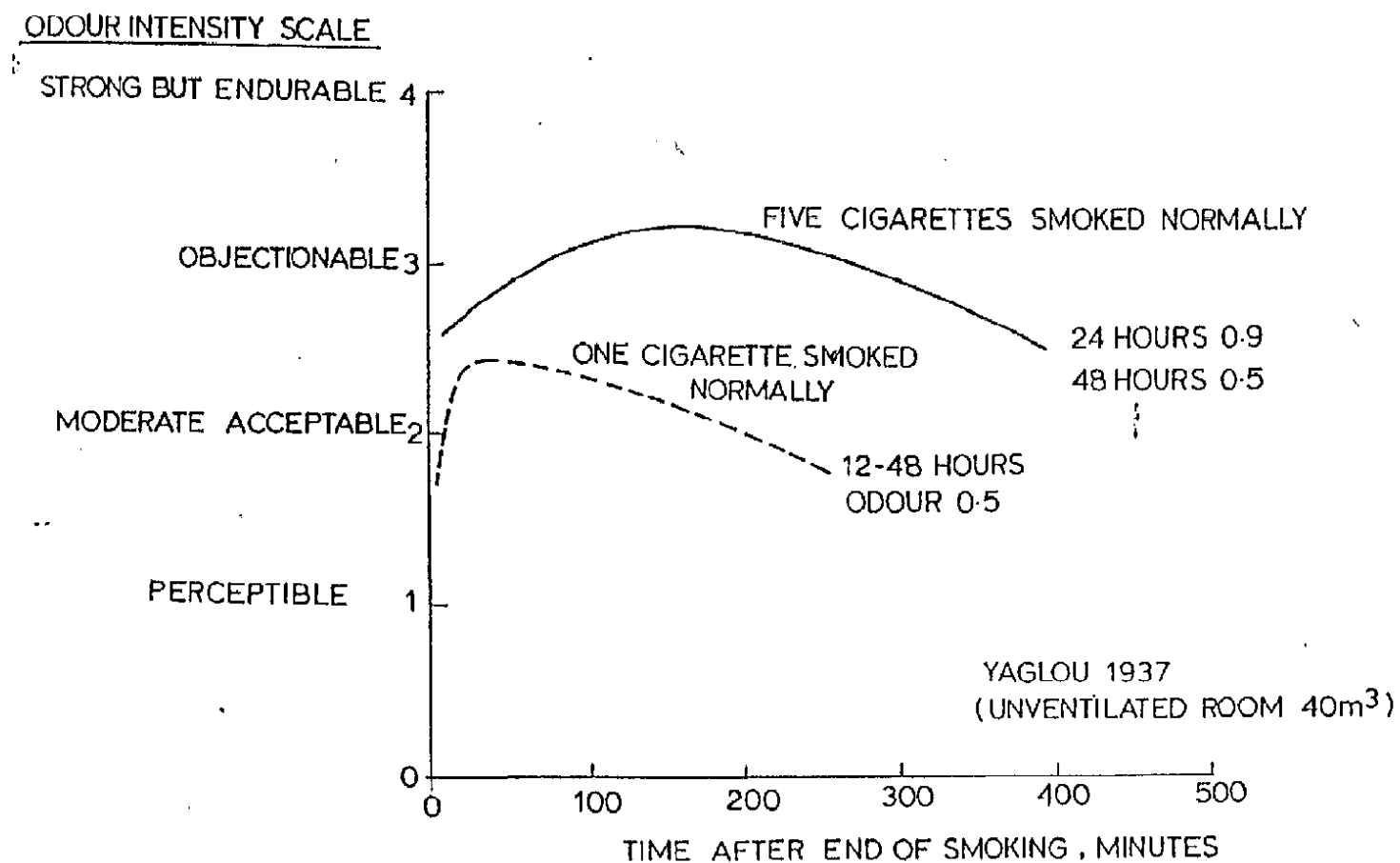


FIGURE 3.
DISAPPEARANCE OF TOBACCO SMOKE IN A CLOSED ROOM.
ECRC/M 870

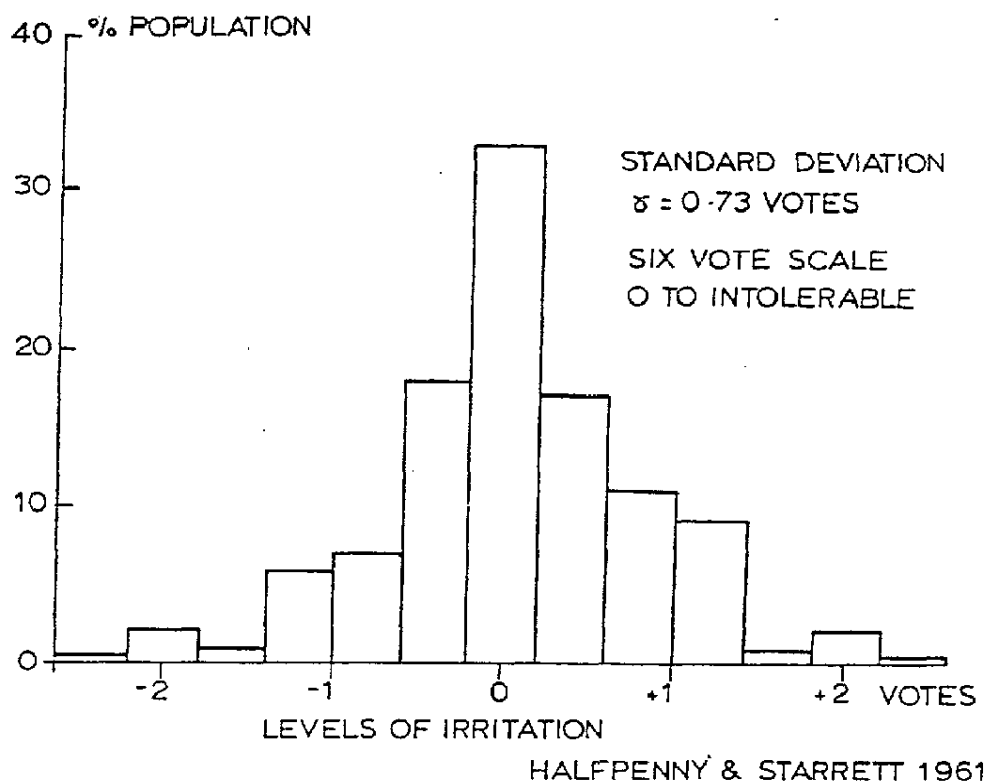
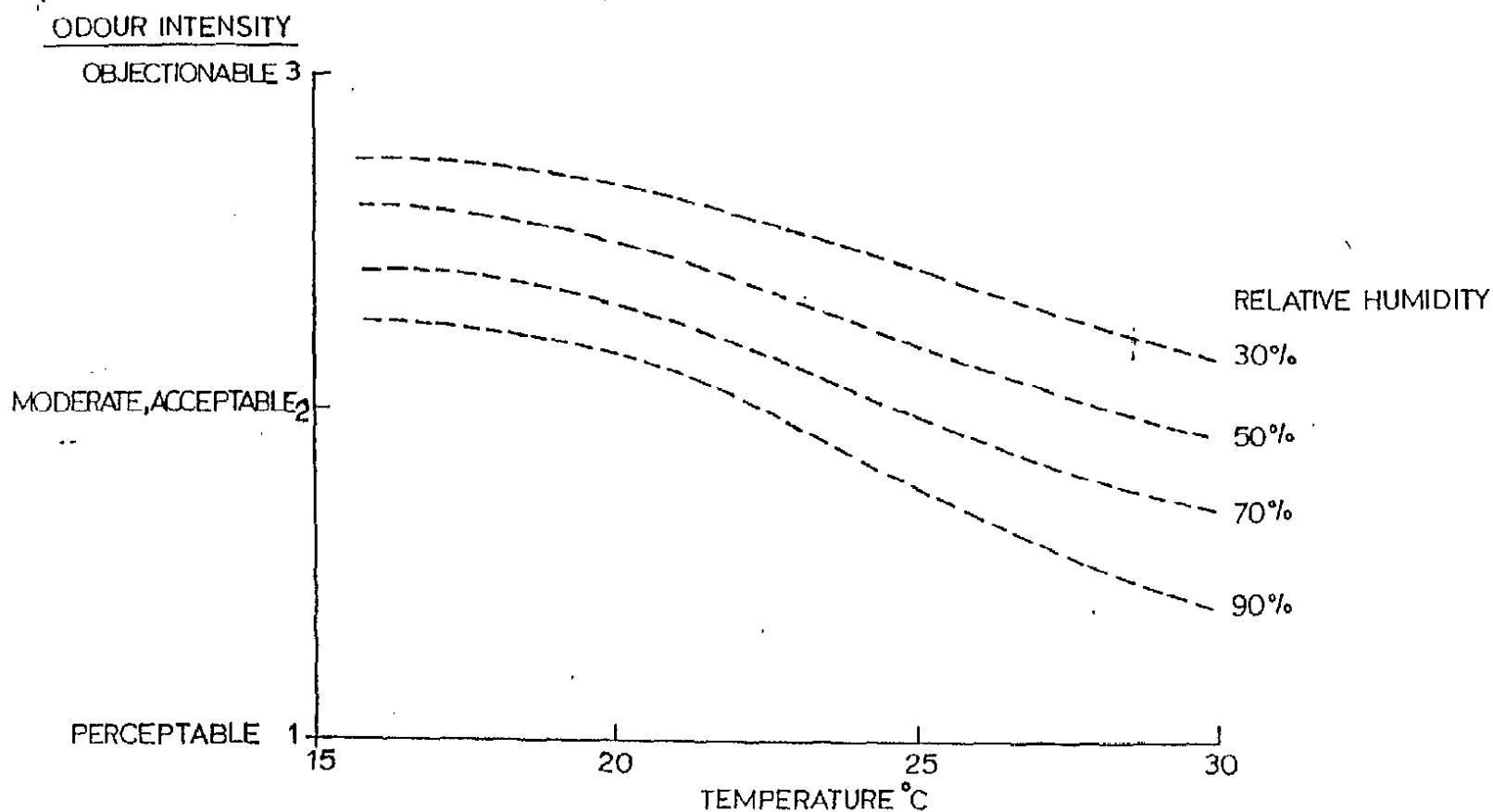


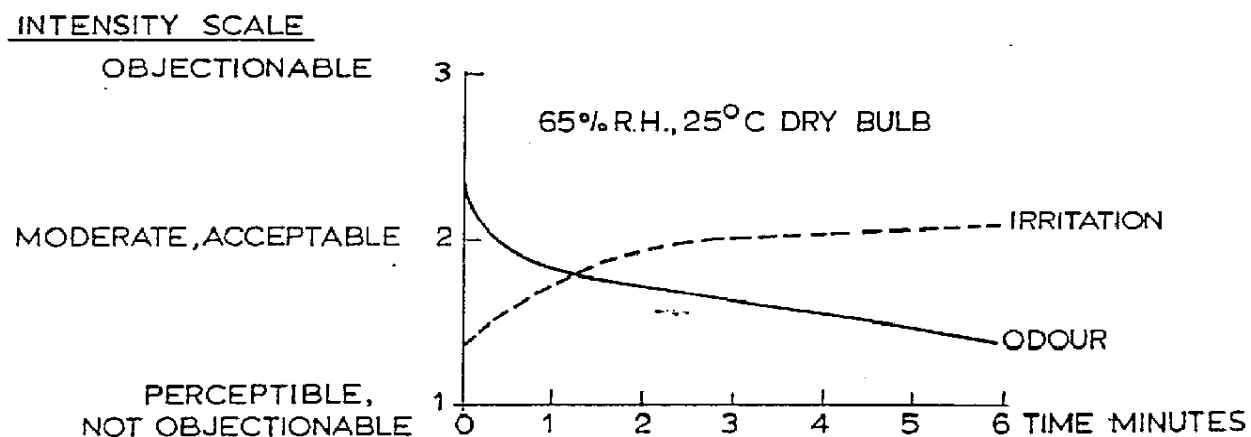
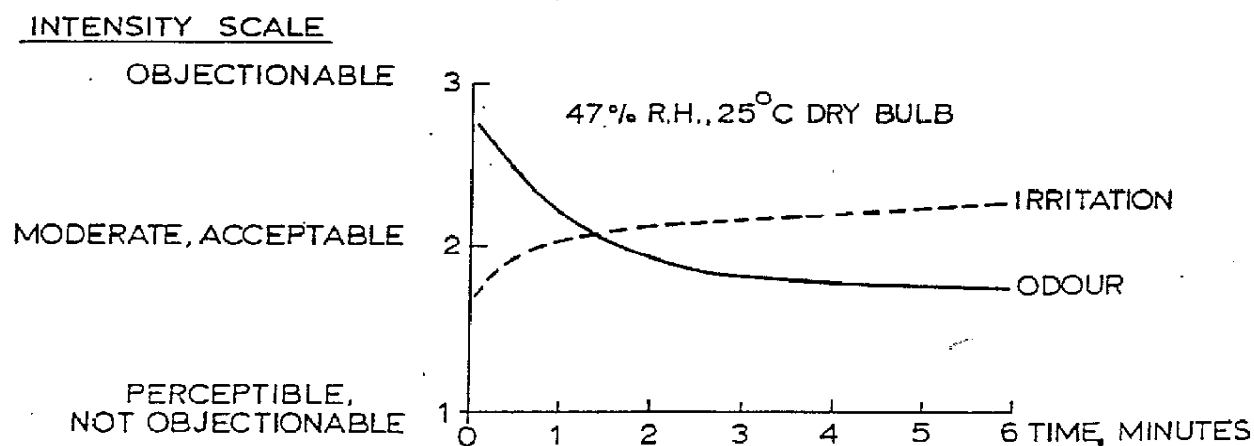
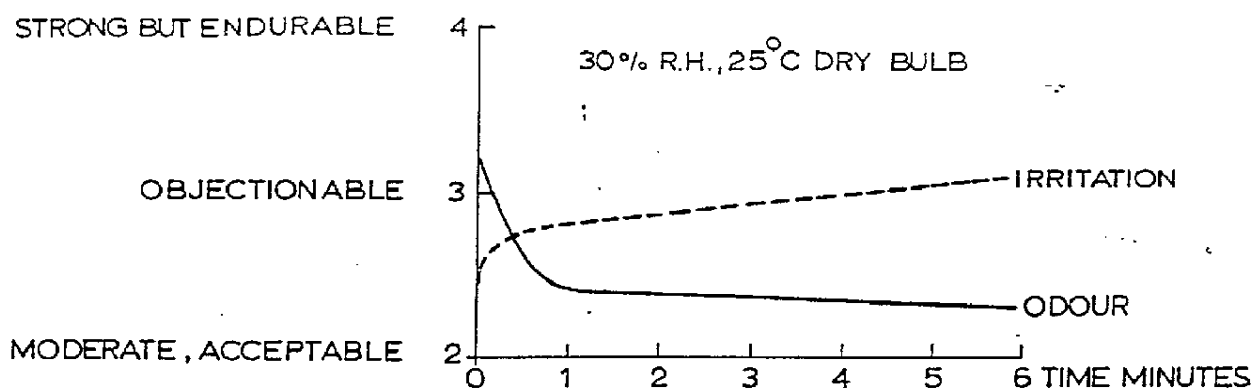
FIGURE 4.
AVERAGE DISTRIBUTION OF JUROR RESPONSES
TO IRRITATION.

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KERKA & HUMPHREYS 1956

FIGURE 5.
THE INFLUENCE OF TEMPERATURE AND HUMIDITY ON ODOUR INTENSITY.
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KERKA & HUMPHREYS 1956

FIGURE 6.
CHANGE WITH TIME OF SMOKE ODOUR SENSITIVITY
AND IRRITATION.

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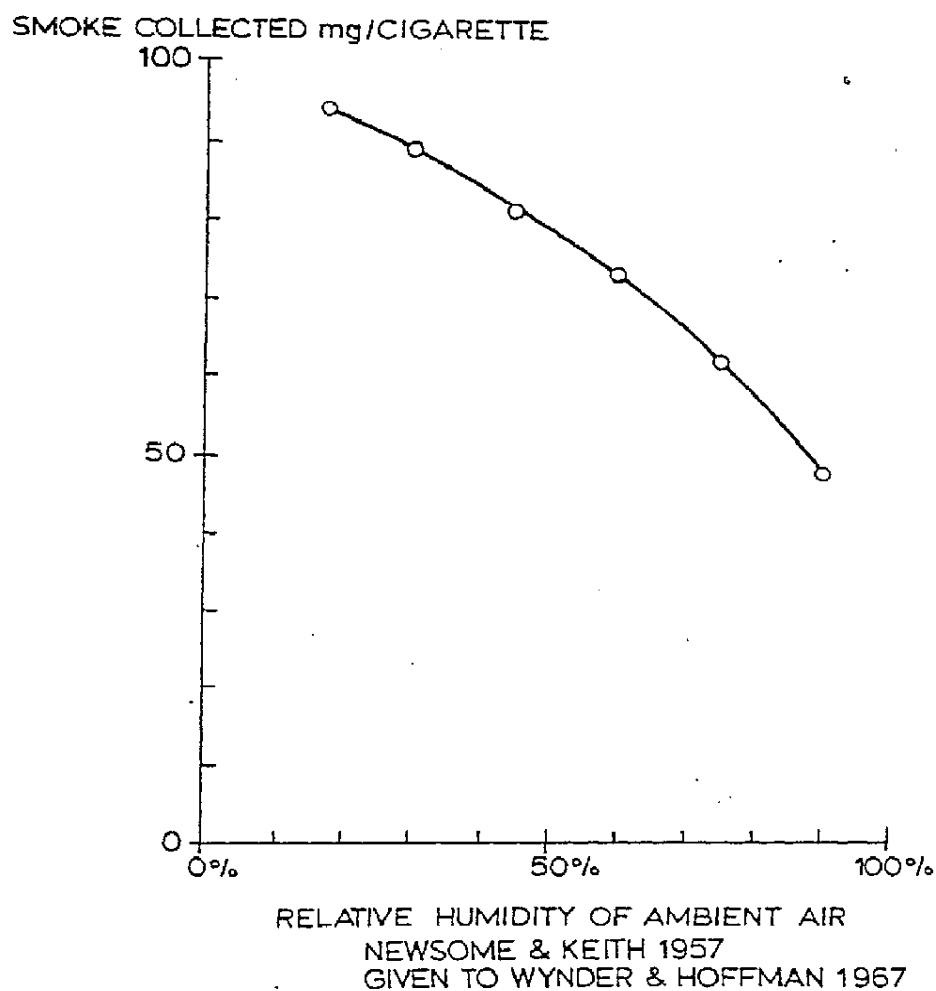


FIGURE 7.
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SMOKE RELEASE AND
ROOM RELATIVE HUMIDITY.

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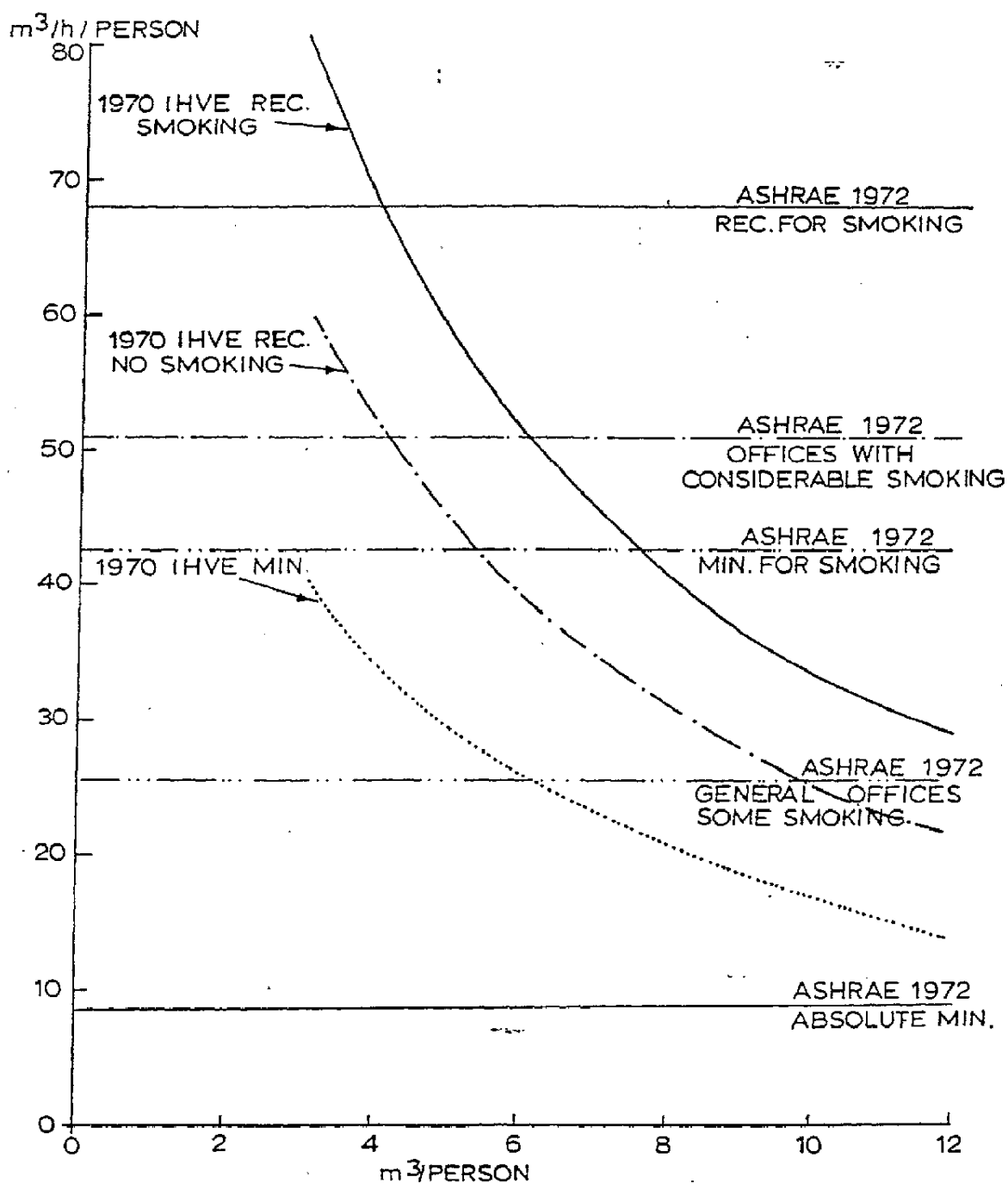


FIGURE 8.
COMPARISON BETWEEN AMERICAN AND BRITISH
RECOMMENDATIONS.

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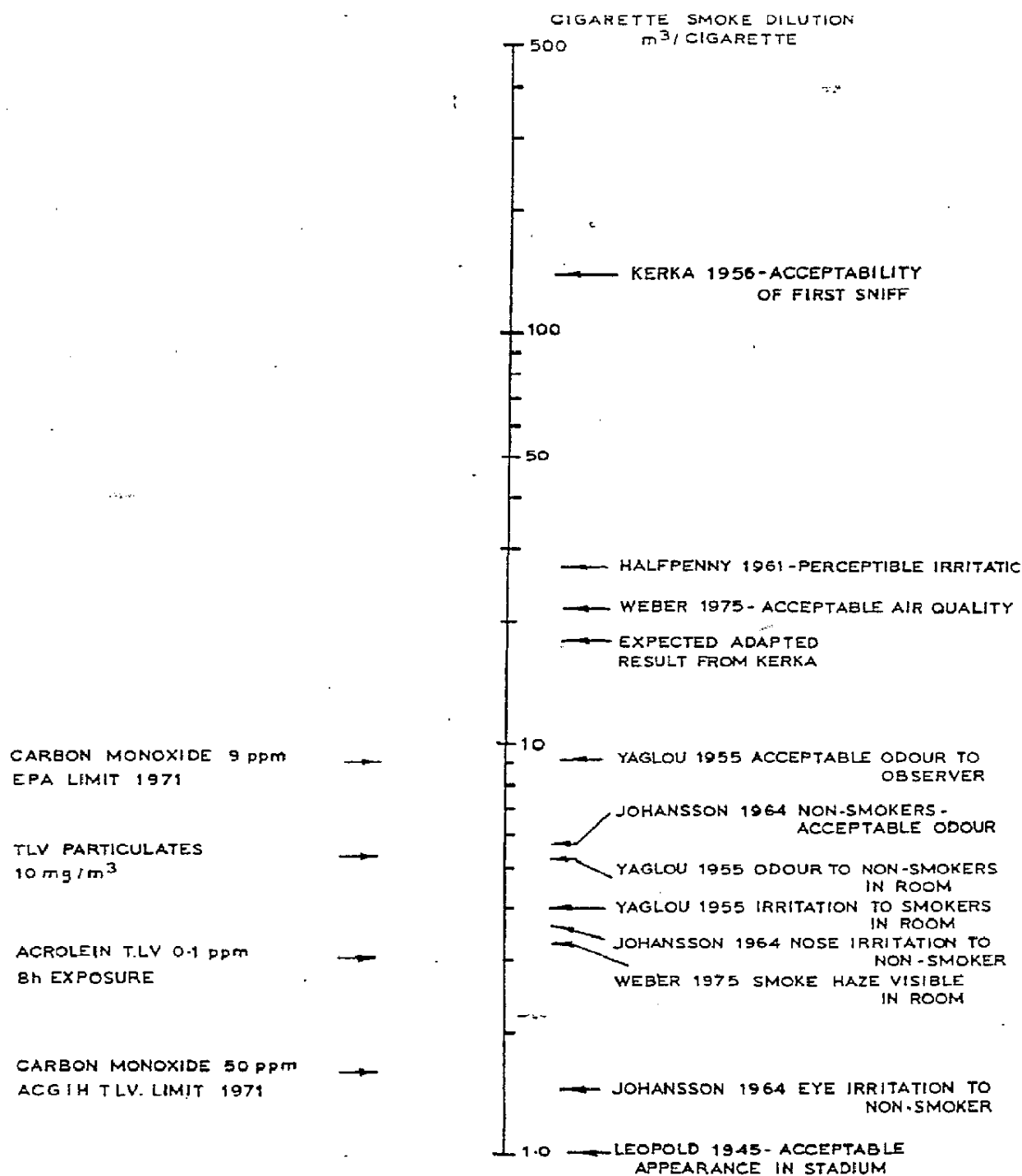


FIGURE 9.
COMPARISON OF HEALTH RECOMMENDATIONS WITH
SUBJECTIVE RATINGS.

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PROVISION FOR SMOKERS IN THE ROOM

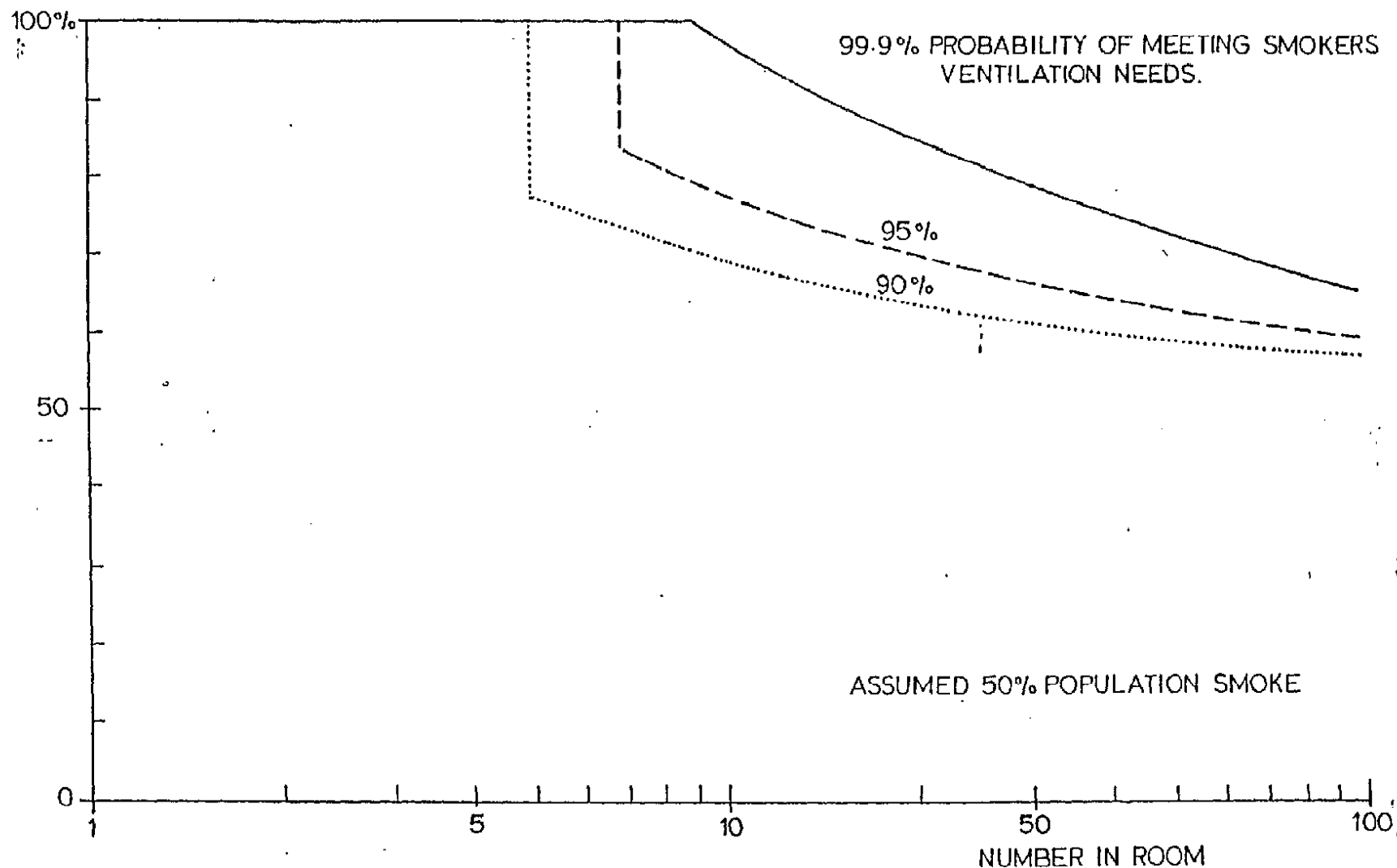


FIGURE 10.
PROVISION FOR SMOKERS IN THE ROOM AS A FUNCTION OF GROUP SIZE.
(SEE APPENDIX)
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APPENDIX 1

1970 GUIDE

Section A1. Comfort p.9

In offices and residences where there is no process load and where an acceptable non-odorous atmosphere is needed.

TABLE A1.7

Minimum ventilation rates where density of occupation is known

Air space/person m^3	Fresh air supply					
	Minimum		Recommended Minima			
			No smoking		Smoking	
	1/s	m^3/h	1/s	m^3/h	1/s	m^3/h
3	11.3	41	17.0	61	22.6	81
6	7.1	26	10.7	39	14.2	51
9	5.2	19	7.8	28	10.4	37
12	4.0	14	6.0	22	8.0	29

This is attributed to the work of Yaglou 1936

Section A9 Estimation of Plant Capacity

TABLE A9.24 Recommended fresh air quantities for air conditioned rooms

Examples*	Smoking	Recommended/person		Minimum +			
		1/s	m^3/h	person		per m^2	
				1/s	m^3/h	1/s	m^3/h
Factories	none	8	29	5	18	0.8	2.9
Hotel rooms	heavy	12	43	8	29	1.7	6.1
Offices - private	heavy	12	43	8	29	1.3	4.7
Residences - av.	heavy	12	43	8	29	-	-
Executive offices	very heavy	25	90	18	65	6	21.6

* more comprehensive list in original + take the greater of the two

APPENDIX 1. continued

Section B2 Ventilation and air conditioning requirements

Table B2.1 Minimum ventilation rates where density of occupation is known

Identical to Table A1.7 based on odour removal

Table B2.2 Mechanical ventilation rates for various types of building

Offices 4-6 air changes/hour

Table B2.4 Recommended fresh air quantities for air-conditioned rooms

Identical to Table A9.24

Section C6 Statutory and other regulations

Four Codes of Regulations for textile industries prescribe a standard of ventilation in terms of carbon dioxide. The basic requirement is that the carbon dioxide inside shall not exceed that outside by 8/10,000. Normally 800 ft³/person/h (23m³/h) would comply.

The four Acts are:

0.8.

0.1.

0.4.

The Spinning and Weaving of Flax and Tow Regulations, 1906.

The Hemp and Jute Regulations, 1907.

The Cotton Cloth Factories Regulations, 1929.

The Jute (safety, Health and Welfare) Regulations, 1948.

Type of building	Occupancy	Person	m ³ /h	ft ³ /h	Air changes/hour	Smoking	Remarks
Factories	2	2	20	20	8	None	
Hotel rooms	8	8	40	40	12	Light	
Offices	8	8	40	40	12	Light	
Restaurants	8	8	40	40	12	Light	
Exhibition	8	8	40	40	12	Light	

APPENDIX 2

BRITISH STANDARDS: DRAFT CODE OF PRACTICE CP3 CHAPTER 8
PART 1 VENTILATION (Document 74/12264 September 1974)

EXAMPLES OF RATES OF VENTILATION DURING PERIODS OF OCCUPANCY

Room	Assumptions	Criteria	Requirement*		Approx. air changes per hour
			l/s	m ³ /h	
Kitchen (during cooking + two hours)	U = 1.74 W/m ² °C outside 5°C inside 20°C (a) gas cooker (b) electric cooking (c) 12 kW flued gas boiler	No condensation on walls	(a) 15 (b) 10 (c) 12	54 36 43	
Bedrooms	U = 1.7 W/m ² °C two people 20 m ³ outside 0°C inside 10°C	(a) acceptable odour dilution	10	36	1.8
		(b) no condensation on walls	6	22	1.1
Living rooms	four people 48 m ³ 3 kW flued gas heater	(a) acceptable odour dilution	16	58	1.2
		(b) air for combustion	3	11	0.2
Bathrooms	one person 14 m ³	(a) acceptable odour dilution	3.5	13	1.0
		(b) no condensation on walls			3.0
W.C.	7 m ³	acceptable odour dilution	8	29	4
General office	7.5 m ³ /person	acceptable odour dilution	6	22	3
Individual office	15 m ³ /person 3 cigarettes/hour	acceptable odour dilution	3	11	0.8
		annoyance by tobacco smoke	8	29	2
Schools	5 m ³ /person	acceptable odour dilution	8	29	6

*values are not additive - use largest appropriate

APPENDIX 3

PROBABILITY OF OFFICE SAMPLE CONTAINING SMOKERS

The average percentage of smokers for Britain is approximately 50% of the adult population. In catering for large group sizes the ventilation design can assume this value. However as the group size reduces we have to consider the possibility of our group containing more smokers than the average population. The extreme of this is the individual office which may contain a smoker or not and hence the design has to ventilate on the probability of smoking.

Let us now consider probability theory:

let n be the group size

P_s be the proportion of smokers in the group

q_{ns} be the proportion of non smokers in the group

The standard deviation σ of the population of smokers is given by

$$\sqrt{n P_s q_{ns}}$$

Accepting 99.9% probability of catering for all the smokers (3σ , one tail) we have

No. in group	Mean no. of smokers	Standard deviation σ	99.9% limit (3σ)	No. of possible smokers at 99.9% confidence	% group population
100	50	5	15	65	65
50	25	3.5	10.5	35.5	71
20	10	2.25	6.75	16.75	84
10	5	1.6	4.8	9.8	98

Similar values can be derived at probabilities of 95% (1.7σ , one tail) and 90% (1.2σ , one tail).